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It has hitherto been continued to the best tables of England and the Centiment, and has only we y recently been introduced into this contribution of the property of the

E. V. HAUGHWOUT, Sole Importer.

WHAT SHALL WE EAT? WHAT SHALL WE LAST
Some things are very vile,
And take much time in making;
But Gream in evry style,
In four mix use it for taking.
By free zing four minutes.
The had from TORREY'S PATENT PAILS,
That evrywhere are found,
And their working never fails.
Le mon and every other sort,
Of the best that's going,
Made at sighteen peace a quart—
A secret that's worth knowing.

1859. FOR LAKE SUPERIOR -The splendid low presmen aide wheel, Upper Cabin steamer ILL 18018, John Frastr, master, will leave Detroit, Michigan, regularly, at 2 o'clock p. m., for Lake Superior ports as follows, (touching at Mackings)

Wednesday, June 15.

Beturday, June 25.

Wednesday, July 6.

Friday, Aug. 12.

Friday, July 15.

Friday, Aug. 21.

Friday, Aug. 22.

Friday, Aug. 23.

Friday, Aug. 23.

Friday, Aug. 24.

Friday, Aug. 25.

Friday, Aug. 26.

Friday, Aug. 26.

Friday, Aug. 27.

Friday, Aug. 28.

Friday, Aug. 28.

Friday, Aug. 28.

Friday, Aug. 29.

Friday, Aug. 20.

Frida Vednesday, June 15. re travelers, or health seekers, during the Sun

CHURCH'S NIAGARA has never before (except on one day been seen BY DAYLIGHT.

GIGKOUX'S NIAGRAN has meer before been exhibited in any
GIGKOUX'S NIAGRAN has meer bepared as well, and THE LATWAY. THE FORMER has been expensed as well, and THE LATTHE IS TOCCUTING COOK IONS for MANAGEMENT STATEMENT.

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3-quart, \$2 B; 4-quart, \$3, 6-quart, \$4, 5-quart, \$5; 14-quart, \$7; 20-quart, \$40.
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a rehable, contains no off, lead or sulphur. It has been tested in Boston, Providence and the Eastern S ates. J. M. Corris, Proprietor, Providence, R. I. Sold by E. M. Glubo, 127 Suwery, J. & L. Coddington, 715 Broadway, W. H. Lewis, 877 Green withest, John Jones, 722 Houstonet, New-York Mrs. Haya, G. P. Milne and Reynolds & Co., Brocklyn, P. Sellew, Jersey, 1975, W. T. Mercer, Newark.

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New Pork Daily Tribune.

FRIDAY, JUNE 24, 1859.

TO CORRESPONDENTS. No notice can be taken of Anonymous Communications. Whatever is intended for insertion must be asthematicated by the name and address of the writer—act necessarily for publication, but as guaranty for his good faith.

We samed undertake to return rejected Communications. Business letters for The Taigung Office should in all cases be addressed to Horace Greeney & the.

We shall be pleased to receive from inventors debailed accounts of their inventions or discoveries, and, if sufficiently important, will notice them for the benefit of our readers

The lower House of the New-Hampshire Legislature has passed, by a decided majority, a stringent Personal Liberty bill through its preliminary

Of all the Presidential candidates, Mr. Douglas is the first in the field, with his declaration of priaciples, and we are bound to say that it has the eminent merit of being frank, manly, and intelligible. Mr Douglas, whatever be his faults, is not wont to disguise or conceal his opinions, and here we have them in their length, breadth and buntness. Mr. J B Dorr of Dubuque, Iows, having inquired whether his friends might present his name at Charleston as a canditate for the Presidency, Mr. Douglas repties, that they may do so if the Convention shall adhere to the time honored doctrine of the Democratic party as expressed in the Compromises of 1855, the Presidential election of 1852, the Kansas-Nebraska act of 1854, the Cincinnati platform of 1850, and in the letter of Mr. Buchanan, accepting the nomination and explunding that platform. But if the Charleston Convention shall set up a new doctrine in favor of the revival of the slave-trade, or of a Congressional Slave code for the Territories, or denying the right of the people in the Territories to regulate Slavery just like other matters relating to property, why, in that event, Mr. Douglas would not accept the nomination, even if it were tendered to him.

Now, there is no doubt that in all the Democratic party there is not another man who would be so strong a Presidential candidate, in the North at least, as Mr. Douglas. But, at the same time, there is no other prominent Democratic statesman who has so small a chance of receiving the nomination at Charleston. This was as true before this letter was published as it is now; and the simple reason why this strong men cannot be nominated s, that he has not always been ready to submit to Southern dictation on the Slavery question, but has followed such a course as he thought best. And with such a state of things before his eyes, the pext Democratic orator will glorify that party on the ground that sectionalism never enters its secred inclosures. Let him consult Douglas on that subject.

EFFECTS OF NATURALIZATION.

The doctrine of perpetual allegiance, whatever objections may be made to it, seems to be founded upon some pretty strong and obvious analogies. However decidedly the fashionable political philosophy of the latter half of the last century might lesn to the idea of allowing every man to think, choose and act for himself-what has been called ind vidual sovereignty-even that philosophy did not deny the existence of certain obligations which, as they are imposed upon every individual without his consent or participation, so he has no power to shake them off. The obligations and duties which a parent owes to a child, and a child to a parent, do not depend upon the will or consent of either, nor does the law, in the sanction which it adds to certain of those obligations, recognize in either any power of renunciation. It was undoubtedly those analogies, the same which in many languages have assimilated the names of father and of country, that gave rise to the idea of p-rpetual allegiance. If a son cannot renounce the obligations which be owes to his father, how can the subject or citizen free b.mself at his own mere will and pleasure from the duty which he owes to his country?

Even the dectrine of contract as the origin of government and the bas s of the mutual obligation of sovereign and subject does not in the least interfere with this doctrine of perpetual allegiance, since even in the case of civil contracts no system of jurisprudence allows one of the parties, at his own mere pleasure or caprice, and without the consent of the other party to the contract, to discharge himself from the obligations thence arising Nor does the idea and practice of naturalization -an idea and practice familiar to the English law as well as our own-necessarily conflict with the doctrine that no man can, by his own mere act, shake off the obligations which his birth has imposed upon him. The great object of naturalization is to give, within the jurisdiction of the country that grants it, the rights and privileges of a natural-born subject, which does not necessarily include the release of the party naturalized from any prior obligations to which he may be liable. It is worthy of notice that the Naturalization act passed by the first Congress under the Federal Constitution did not require on the part of the persons naturalized any renunciation of any prior obligations. That act authorized all Courts of Record to entertain the application of alien free white persons who had resided within the United States for two years, and, on proof of good character and their taking an oath of affirmation to support the Constitution, to admit such persons as citizens; but no person who had been disfranchised by any State under any laws passed during the Revolution was to be readmitted as a citizen, except by a legislative act of the State to which he had formerly belonged. This first Naturalization act was passed in 1790. Another act, substantially that which is now in force, was passed in 1794. By that time, a considerable stream of emigration was setting to the United States, but, to a great extent, of a different character from that which now flows thither. Instead of being mainly made up, as now, of persons coming in pursuit of empleyment or pecuniary advantage, it was largely composed of political refugees, driven from Europe

by the political sgitations that prevailed there.

Many of the banished Prench nobility, and many of the discontented Ireh, sought refuge in the United States; and what with fear of foreign aristocrats on the one hard, and apprehension as to imported Jacobinism on the other, both parties by which the country had then begun to be divided were willing to reader naturalization more difficult. By a new act, the preliminary residence necessary to citizenship was extended to five years; a three years' previous declaration (to be made in some Court of Record) of intention to become a citizen was also required, and a residence for one year in the State where the naturalization should be had. The new c tizen was now also called upon to renounce for ever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or State, and also expressly to renounce any title of nobility which he might have borne in his native country.

The course which the Members of the Congres that en-cted this law had themselves taken in shak ing off their own allegiance to the British Crewn, might naturally lead them to claim for all others. as a matter of right, a like privilege. Never theless, there are obvious differences, which leave no sort of similarity between the two cases. In the first place, the dissolution of the political connection between the inhabitants of the United States and the British Crown and nation was not an individual act. It was the act of the States respectively, or rather of the States collectively, and not the act of the individual citizens. So far from recognizing any right in the in dividual to select his own sovereign or country, our Revolutionary fathers held that individuals were absolutely bound by the act of the community of which they formed a part; nor did they hesitate to inflict severe penalties on such individuals as undertook to exercise a private right of judgment and choice in this matter. In the second place, the renunciation of allegiance to the British Crown thus collectively made was formally consented to by the British Government at the treaty of peacean incredient of consent wholly wanting in the case of individuals undertaking to create a new allegi ance for themselves. Our interest, too, would naturally incline us to favor the view by which, as a country receiving emigrants rather than sending them out we had most to gain, while it is not to be wondered at that naturalized citizens themselves should relact at the idea of owing service to two masters, even though it were a voluntary act of their own by which they were placed in that predicament.

Practically, however, the inconveniences likely

to arise from the doctrine of perpetual allegiance,

are confined within narrow limits. There seem to be only two cases in which the naturalized citizen is likely to find himself in danger from the claims upon him by his native country. So long as the country of his birth, and the country of his adoption remain at peace with each other, and so long as he avoids going back to set up in his native country his acquired rights as against his original obligations, no claims seem likely to be made upon him on the part of his original sovereign. During the war of 1812, between us and Great Britain, the latter country set up a right on her part to treat and punish as traitors such native-born British subjects as might be taken in arms against her, notwithstanding they might at the same time be naturalized citizens of the United States. Twenty three Irishmen found among the prisoners taker by the British at the battle of Queenstown, were denied the treatment of prisoners of war, and were sent to England to be tried for treason. This movement was promptly met by the passage of an set of Congress authorizing the President to retaliste on British prisoners of war any treatment which these naturalized citizens might undergo; and under the authority of this act the President ordered the close confinement of twentythree British soldiers to abide the fate of the Irishmen taken at Queenstown. Gen. Prevost, then commanding in Canada, responded, under special orders from England, by the close confinement of twice the number of American officers and non-commissioned officers, with a threat, if this practice were continued, of namiticated severity against the American cities and villages President Madison replied by shut ting up a like number of British officers, and with threats to retort any further severities in which the British might indulge. Thereupon Prevost ordered all his prisoners into close confinementan example which Madison immediately followed. Happily, however, this aggravating system soon came to an end. Some of the imprisoned American officers were released on parole, and were made the bearers of a message that the twentythree Irishmen sent to England had not been brought to trial, but remained on the ordinary footing of prisoners of war. This speedily led to a dismissal on parole of all the officers prisoners on both sides. But the British Government, in thus receding, sought to cover its retreat by a proclamation, recalling all its subjects from foreign service, granting parcons for all past treasons of this sort on the score of probable ignorance, but threatening to punish as traitors all subjects taken in the service of any hostile Power after four months from the date of the proclamation-an empty threat never attempted to be executed. Nor, indeed, is it likely that this claim to the exclusive military service o its natural-horn subjects will ever again be revived

On the other hand, our Government has con ceded that naturalized citizens returning to their native country, thereby subject themselves to the fulfillment of any obligations of military service which existed against them at the period of their emigration. Mr. Cass, however, in his latest an nouncement on this subject, makes the distinction that, though if actually in the army or drawn for service at the period of emigration, the obligation to serve still remains good against them; they are not, after their return, hable to any new enrollment, but are entitled to plead against it their acquired American citizenship.

MAGENTA.

The battle of Magenta will doubtless be assigned a place in the list of first-class European engagements. The large number of troops on the field: the presence, immediate or proximate, of two Esperors, a King, and of Princes and Mar shals of the two Empires; the amount of the billed, wounded and captured; the bestowal of a Mar shal's baton and a ducal coronet ere the smoke of the conflict had cleared away; and the subsequent triumphal entry of the victors into the capital city of the territory in dispute between the bel bgerents, render vivid the recollections of the great Napoleonic battles rear the beginning of the present century. But, if Magenta calls up such recollections, it also stimulates comparisons between it and those historic fields, both as regards the military genius displayed by the commanders of the respective armies, and the persistent valor, even unto wounds and death, exhibited by the rank and safe to easy that the Napoleon who witnessed the carnage at Magenta was not the Napoleon who led the French against the Austrians at Marenga, Austerlitz and Wagram; while it is yet to be proved that the Austrian commander was equal in capacity to Suwarrow, Melas, Schwartzenberg, Charles, and other leaders in the struggle of Austria with France under the first Empire. But, however this point may be decided, Magenta,

in its sanguinary results, falls far below the chief battles of the Napoleonic era. "The carnage at "Magenta," says a cotemporary, "was as great as "at Marengo." Yes, but the number of troops engaged was three and a balf ti nes greater than at Marengo. As a general rule, the surest test of the courage and stubb rnness with which a field is fought, is the proportion which the kided and wounded bear to the numbers engaged. Tried by this test, the principal battles of the elder Napoleon are without a parallel since the invention of gunpowder. Two or three of those of the Great Frederick approach them in bloody results, while some American engagements (though on a much smaller scale) were, in comparison with the troops brought into action, nearly as sanguinsry. The aim of Napoleon, fully understood and shared in by his Marshals and his men, was, not victory merely over the foe, but his destruction; not defeat, but arnihilation. This spirit, permeating and firing his battalions, burled them headlong upon his antagonists, who, roused by the impetu ority of the attack, were provoked to the most determined resistance. The consequences were havoe and carnage such as the world has rarely

But, our present business is with results, rather than their causes. Groping for facts among the mass of contradictory telegrams, it would seem that about 250 000 troops, of all arms, participated more or less in the struggle at Mageota; and that the killed and wounded number some 20,000-being not far from eight per cent of the two armies. Appalling as is such slaughter. Magenta wears a much smoother front than the grim visaged fields of the Napoleonic period.

We have collated the details of ten of the chief battles of that ers-namely, Marengo, Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, Friedland, Aspern, Wagram, Boro dipo, Leipsic, and Waterloo. Taking as the basis of our calculations the average statements of the leading authorities on all sides, and discarding mere fractions, and dealing only in round numbers, we find that, in these ten battles, France and her allies had 989,000 men, of all arms; her antagonists 1,132,000; and that there were killed and wounded of the former 249,500, and of the latter 261,500-making an aggregate of 2,121,000 troops engaged, of whom 511,000 were killed and wounded. The average loss, therefore, in these ten battles, is a fraction over twenty four per cent, or a little less than one-quarter of all the troops engaged! The carnage at Magenta, then, would seem to be only about one-third as great as the average slaughter in the chief contests of the first Napoleon. Though dry statistics of this sort are repulsive to many minds, they may be valuable to the readers of THE TRIBUNE for present or future reference; hence we will go a little into detail in comparing these battles.

At Marengo, fought near the spot of the recent ngsgement, the loss in killed and wounded on both sides was 21 per cent, or more than one-fifth of the whole number brought into action. At Ass terlitz known as "the battle of the three Emperors," and whose unclouded sun Napoleon ever remembered even in his dreams, 12,000 French and 25,000 Austrians and Russians were put hors du combat out of 170,000 on the field. At Jens (with which Auerstadt is usually coupled), fought on the anniversary of Marengo, and where the French encountered the army which contained in its ranks a few gray veterans who had followed the black eagle on the field argent under the Great Frederick, the loss was heavier than at Austerlitz, reaching the appalling proportion of 26 per cent. The battle of Eylau, where Napoteon received his est severe check, was terribly sanguinary. Our of 150,000 French and Russians engaged, 57,000 stained the ice and snow of that wintry field with their blood. This was the most murderous conflict which Europe had seen since Frederick of Prussia, fifty years before, left 42,000 dead and wounded under the walls of Prague. At Friedland fought in the dead of Winter, and where the victory was more clearly with the French than at Eylau. about 21 per cent of those engaged were left on the field. The loss at Aspern (including Essling) reached the awful extent of upward of 35 cent. During two days 148,000 men struggled in mortal combat in and around these blazing villages, 52,000 of whom were baptized in their own gore. Following close upon this wholesale slaughter came the more celebrated and decisive but less murderous battle of Wagram. where, though the numbers stricken down amounted to about 50,000, they were but 18 per cept of the troops in action. This was comparatively one of the least bloody of Napoleon's general battles; that of Lutzen being a little more, and that at Rautzen a little less, sanguinary than Wagram. We now reach, in chronological order, Berodino, the most severely fought action in which the Powers of Europe ever took part, and which has no parallel since the wars of the Roman Em pire. Kutusoff here made his last stand for Mos ow. The French, mustering about 135,000, encountered the Russians, numbering about 140,000. The sun of this dreadful day shed his declining rays on nearly 100,000 men weltering in their blood. At Leipsic, where for three days Nap deon, with 175,000 troops, withstood combined Europe with 300,000, the havoc was smaller in comparison with the numbers engaged than in most of his other battles. About 84,000 were killed and wounded in actual battle, or drowned in the Elster, or blown up on its bridge in attempting to escape from the city, being less than 18 per cent of the combatants assembled within and around its walls. At Waterloo, counting of the Prussians only Bulow's corps, and including those only who fell on the field, the loss in killed and wounded on all contest the fourth place on the list, in respect to bloodshed, of the Napoleonic conflicts, viz: Borodine, Eylau, Aspen, and Waterloo.

From these data, it appears that of the three great European Fowers with which Napoleon so often contended (we exclude England from the list, because Waterloo, the only field where he in person encountered her, affords too narrow a basis for a general inference), he had the severest struggles with the Russians; the next most sanguinary with the Prussians, and the least bloody with the Austrians. Probably it was the fact that French vivacity and sim had so often met and mastered the accounts are yet confused and contradictory, it is caused the first meager and contradictory tidings alone may be anywhere from \$25,000 to \$50,000, for Governor of Pennsylvania.

without any misgissage as to their general truth. Looking at this bartle, then, in the light of the foregoing statistics, it will be seen that, severe as on his men tall the lat of March, instead of the lat it was, it is only one-third as sanguinary as the av- of January, as the others proposed. He comerage of Napoleon's ten great engagements. It sinks, proportionally, below the lowest more than but seventy-five. Are there any more such conone half, and does not reach the murderous preeminence of the highest by more than six-sevenths. And it may surprise some Americans to know, that or something worse, it is time that those who the carnage at Magenta is scarcely more than one third as great, in comparison with the number of their stewardship. An effort was made last Wintroops on the respective fields, as it was on the ter at Albany to get a resolution of inquiry through Plains of Abraham, at Bunker Hill, at Chippewa, and at Buena Vista.

HOW TO MAKE A CONTRACT.

Some time during the past year, Mr Hall of the firm of Benedict, Hall and Co., a boot and shoe house, in Park Row, made a visit of curiosity, with some friends from a distance, to the State Prison at Sing Sing. Observing that many of the prisoners seemed out of employment, he inquired as to the cause, and learned, to his surprise, that about four bundred of the convicts had been idle for pearly a year. Four bundred men supported in idleness by the State, when, by being put to productive labor, they might be made to support themselves, and, perhaps, to yield a revenue; four hundred convicts reduced almost to solitary confinement, when they might be subjected to the smeliorating influence of something like cheerful industry, seemed to Mr. Hall two facts worthy of further consideration. After due inquiry and examination, in the course of the Summer, he satisfied himself that his bouse could employ two hundred of these men in the manufacture of coarse boots and shoes. He proposed to make a contract for such a purpose, but was teld that none could advertisement, that this labor was open to public competition. In September such an advertisement appeared, but only in such journals as would certainly prevent its having any large publicity. Mr. Hall found it in a Brooklyn paper of small circulation. In accordance with this notice, the Prison Inspectors met at Sing Sing on the 18th of December last, to receive the bids.

When the proposals were opened, the highest bid was found to be that of C. D. and W Bigelow of this city. They offered to make a contract for the labor of two bundred men for five years, paying twenty five cents per day for each man for be first six months, and forty-five cents and six-tender of a cent per day for the remaining four years and six months A contractor, who was present when the proposals were received, offered the Messrs Bigclow \$250 if they would withdraw this bid, but they refused. The Inspectors, however, threw it out on the ground of informality, alleging that it was, in effect, two bids, as it proposed in fact to make two contracts-one for six months, and one for four years and six months. Two or three other bids were rejected, on the ground of insufficient

Messes Benedict, Hall and Co offered to give forty cents per day for the labor of the two hundred men for five years, beginning on the ensuing January. It had been intrinsted to Mr Hall, by a Prison official, that a few hundred dollars, properly expended, night influence the award, but the intimation was disregarded. Their bid, also, was rejected-it appearing that a Mr. H. B Gilbert made a higher offer. His bid was forty five cents and five eighths of a cent per day for the five years, which, being the highest after the bid of the Messrs. Bigelow was thrown out, was accepted.

All, thus far, seemed fair and aboveboard, so far, at least, as the award was concerned. Between the three real competitors for the contract, the Bigelows, Benedict, Hall and Co., and Mr. Gilbert, the Inspectors chose the highest open to their acceptance. This, of course, however, is on the supposition that they had no right to entertain the proposition of the Messrs Bigelow, because it included two prices, and on the further supposition that Gilbert's bid of five-eighths of a cent over Renedict. Hall and Co 's was really higher, in being for the same number of men and for the same length of time. If, on the other band, the Iuspectors could make such a contract as that offered by the Bigelows, then the State was the loser by its rejection; and if Benedict, Hall and Co. covered more men and more time by their offer of forty cents, than Gilbert did by his offer of five-eighths of a cent higher, then the State was also the loser by the award that was given. Now, let us look at

the contract as actually made. On the 24th of December the Inspectors and Warden met to conclude the matter, and a Mr. E P. Ross of Auburn came forward-Mr. Gilbert having assigned the award to him. But the parties came together, apparently not to conclude a bargain already made, but to negotiate a new one. What Mr. Ross may have supposed he had bought, we, of course, do not know; but the Inspectors, at least, could not have forgotten what they had awarded to Mr. Gilbert. Nevertheless what they gave to Mr. Ross bore but small relation to the award they had made to Mr. Gilbert They neither regarded their decision against the Bigelows' offer, nor their rejection of Benedict, Hall and Co.'s as too low, but made a contract with Ross similar in terms to that asked for by the first, and lower in price than that offered by both. By the terms of the contract actually made, Mr. Ross is to pay 40% cents per day only for all certified and practi cal bootmakers, and for such convict not certified and not practiced as a boot or shoemaker, he is to pay only 20 5-16 cents; he has, besides, the privilege of removing, at any period within three months after a convict is placed on the contract, any man whom he shall conclude is not I kely to become sufficiently skillful for his purpose; and the Warden is to supply him with two men for the five years, with out charge, as shopwaiters. Now, remembering that the bid of the Bigelows was thrown out because they divided the time into two periods, and offered a price for each-that the bid of Benedict, Hall and Co. was rejected because it was lower than Gilbert's; we see at a glance the beauty of this contract with Gilbert's assignee, which gives him the sides was about 30 per cent of the numbers on the convict labor at a lower price than either the spot during the battle-thus giving this famous Bigelows, or Benedict, Hall and Co. oftered, and on the very terms for which the Bigelews' bid was rejected as illegal, But the advantage gained by Ross is even greater than will be immediately apparent to those ignorant of the trade, though it will be clear enough to the manufacturers of boots and shoes. Much of the work done by convict labor in this trade is of the coarsest kind, and easily learned. The contractor, under the reserved privilege of tarning off men within three months, may keep himself constantly supplied, if he chooses, with fresh hands, who are not sertified and practiced boutmakers, but who will answer his purpose, at the minimum price.

Thus the loss to the State on this shoe contract

of the victory at Magenta to be received in America | as the contractor planers, who, it is to he presumed will look after his own interests. It has already been considerable, as Ross was not required to take menced with twenty, and up to the lat inst had tree's as these? It is not impossible. At any rate, whether they are made through careleseses make them were brought to render an account of the Legislature relating to this subject of State Prison contracts. That it never went beyond the lowest House-the Lobby-and failed there, will surprise nobody.

HUMBOLDT ON AMERICAN SLAVERY.

If it be true, generally, that " the evil which men do lives after them, but the good is often interred with their bones," it is not so always. It is not often that a man dies for whom the ex pression of sincere sorrow and reverence is so universal as that which we have just witnessed, all over the world, at the death of Humbolds M errors he had any -as, doubtless, he had, being a man-they are forgotten, and the good only is remembered. As human passion and human frailty are outlived by the old, so we are prone to bow be fore the very aged with that natural veneration which the humon heart ever renders to virtue. Years also are reverential, and we bow with awe in the presence of that life which stretches far back into the dim past when we were not, and stands visibly upon the confines of the unknown future. But all this we may feel when any good old man lays down his burden. There was more than this at the death of Humbeldt. He who is most benered in our day be entered into until public notice was given, by for his contributions to science, he who has devoted as many years to the cause of knowledge as any other man who has ever lived, and whose name as a man of science will endure so long as the three principal living languages of the world shall be spoken or written tongues, has died. There is mourning for him whose name is enrolled high upon the list of those benefactors of the race whe have enlarged the field of human knowledge, and opened new avenues for human thought.

But not for these things alone do veneration and sorrow wait upon the memory of Humbolds. As a matter of knowledge we study the public career of great men; as a matter of interest we turn to their private histories. Their greatness we take almost for granted if the world has passed its judgment upon it; their goodness, or the want of it we make a question of personal feeting. He who has not this personal hold upon posterity is an event rather than an individual. It is the universal reverence for this man's private character more than for his public services, the estimation of a life-long consistency in the advocacy of great moral questions more than for the devotion of so many your to the pursuit of truth that has called forth so striking and universal an expression of sorrow at his death. The unlearned stand with him here sa common ground. They look up to and admirs bie as the philosopher; but as a man who feels with them for the wrongs and sufferings of his fellowcreatures, they spproach bim as a friend In this country, especially, it is the few only

who understand and appreciate the scientific labor to which Humboldt has devoted so long a life. But all can sympathize with and honor his devotion to the great cause of human liberty. Wastever personal or political considerations or interests may be involved, among us, in the discussion of this question of freedom, no reasonable and thinking man denies that it is one from which we can not escape; that our national existence depends, one way or another, upon its settlement, and that no question has taken a deeper hold upon the consciences and the minds of the sober, think ing people of the North than this. The rights of man are the same everywhere. Neither nation ality, nor color, nor race, can alter in any degree, however slight, the great principles which lie at the root of any discussion of these rights. The are to be ascertained and settled on the same basis everywhere, however much the method of settlement may be affected by corcumstances of times or of country. No man saw this more clearly than Humboldt. As he loved liberty at home, he loved it abroad; as he maintained it to be the heaven-born right of the white man, so he arowed that it belonged equally to the black. No prejedice influenced him; familiar with the Atricas slave, wherever the curse of African Slavery exists, he never permitted his judgment to be warped by contact with the degradation to which centuries of bondage had reduced its victims. He looked upon them as men, and applied to them, as to all other human creatures, the great truth of the inalienable rights which belong to humanity. He perce forgot to avow his faith, and where its avoral might cost him something in the respect sad esteem of others, the more certain was be to be instant, in season and out of season, in bearing his te-timony against oppression. It has not been unobserved, we believe, by the America people, that for years past he has written no letters, and held no conversations, which were likely to be made public in this country, that were want ing in a rebuke of American Slavery. But it was a rebuke so given that the most sensitive could never interpret it as an interference with national politics, and the most bigoted could hardly fall W admire the manliness and persistency with which he adhered to what, it was evident, he considered a Christian and humane duty. It was felt that his heart throbbed in unison with the heart of the people, and that the lowliest and most oppressed he never forgot. This life long devotion of Hugboldt to the great idea of liberty is the key-note to a noble character. In such a nature there is magnanimity and a generosity which command the reverence and the love of the virtuous, and the instinctive respect of even the meaner sort of mes.

In another part of THE TRIBUNE of to-day, we have gathered together some of the evidence of this determination on his part never to permit as opportunity to escape him of bearing his testimony upon the question of Slavery in this country, which, we think, the reader, whether familiar with it of

not, will turn to with great interest.

-Tee Legislature of New Hampshire bas indefiitely rejected a bill to repeal a law of that State which requires naturalized voters to present their certifi cate of citizenship thirty days before election.

-The flon. Millard Fillmore, who has been staying in Cincinnati recently, has been nominated for the Presidency. At a meeting of "gentlemen of all parties," held in Cliffon, Ohio, a town of 300 inhabitants, Mr. F. was " uzanimously nominated for Preside of United States." It was agreed he should be re in 1860 as "the People's candidate."

-The Reading Gazette favors the nomination of